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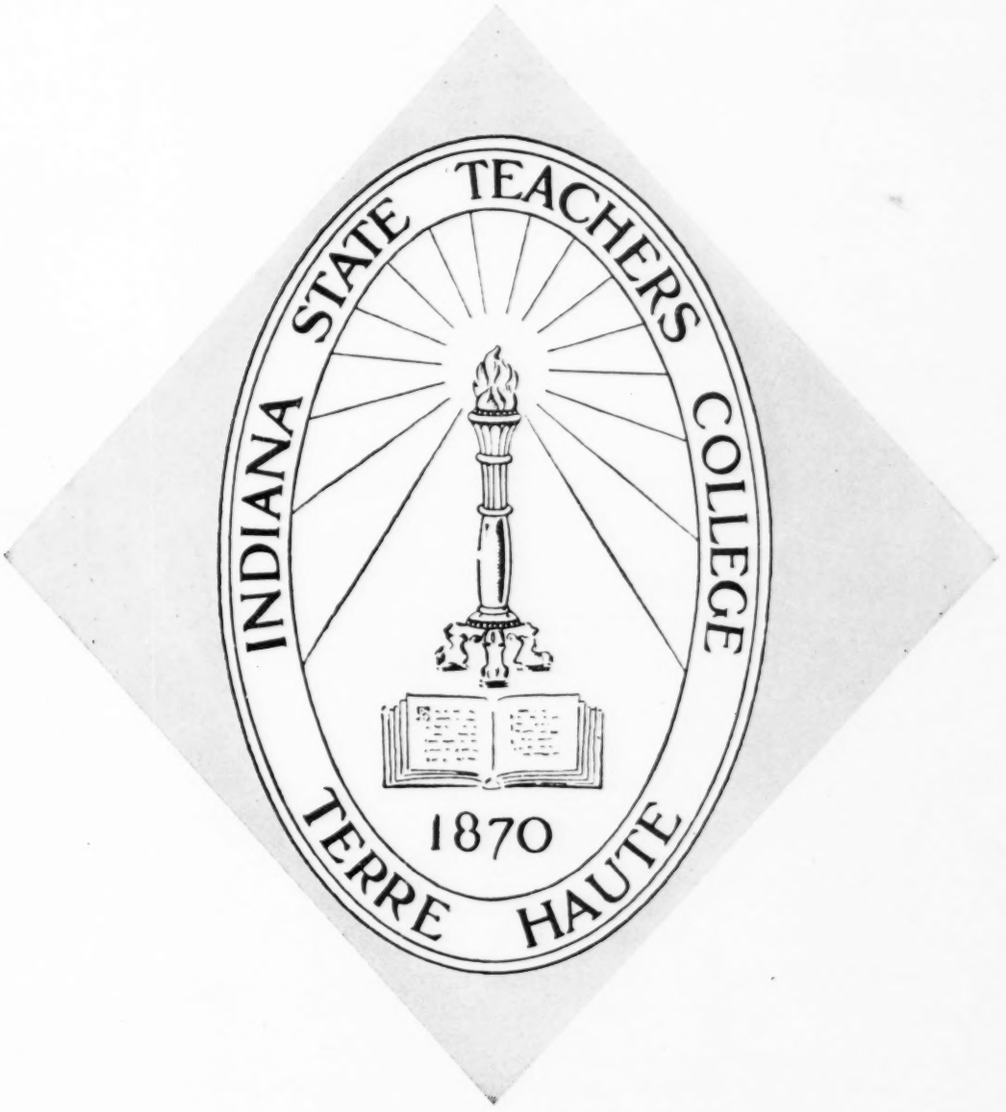

Volume XVIII **MARCH, 1947** Number 5

THE TEACHERS COLLEGE JOURNAL

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The Workshop Laboratory In Teacher Education

Thirty years ago a small world of educational philosophy considered closely the Deweyan principles of learning by doing, and found in them a reminiscent residue of the thinking of Pestalozzi, Froebel, Rousseau, and Hall. Differing only in the accidentals of the statements of their views, these men had heralded, each in his decade, the basic ideas of child growth through experience that man not only learns only what he does, but man is what he does.

The implementation of philosophies into practice is accompanied by lag in education as well as in other areas of social and cultural development, but, nevertheless the history of education has steadily progressed through the introduction of the problem study, the project method, work-study units, experience curricula, the activity movement, workshops, and laboratory techniques. Each has differed in the externals of organization, terminology, and specific method or technique, but all have been in agreement in that they emphasized the application by children of knowledges and skills to functional situations in their experiences, and in such application attempted the development of the logical, systematic approach to problem-solving, which is the basis of the scientific method.

Innovations in method have begun, in general, with nursery and other pre-school education and have in their early years served to co-ordinate home and school developmental programs for the very young child. The adaptation of group play, games, and simple grasping and building toys have helped to utilize most effectively some of the basic principles of child development generalized in the statements of educational leaders.

From nursery and kindergarten programs the experience basis moved ahead in early childhood education into the primary grades, and for some years study units based upon the social needs of children growing up in the primary levels was generally well-accepted as good teaching method. But as the content level of courses of study for later grades became more and more weighted with specific factual content, less and less was done to attempt to make work the philosophies accepted as desirable. Educational trappings of routines and credits and records and requirements continue to drag into the pools of stagnation what could be an onward push to improved functional education.

Paradoxically enough, in the field of teacher education and in related fields of training for school psychologists and social workers, the laboratory or workshop idea where prospective workers with children can "learn by doing" have been none too frequently employed. True, almost every teachers college has access to a training or "practice" school, either maintained as a part of the collegiate institution, or affiliated with the campus but maintained by a neighboring public school system. But to what extent do these "laboratory schools" serve as laboratories? Are they workshops for a closer understanding of that intricate delicate mechanism of childhood and adolescence? Are they centers of experiment and research in child growth, and in methods and outcomes of learning? And—should they be?

Laboratory schools by any name must serve at least a dual function: they should serve as demonstration, observation, and practice centers where student teachers can have that priceless opportunity to begin to learn to know boys and girls; but they are also charged with other responsibilities to provide the finest opportunities for growth and development for these children who are their pupils. Are these functions concordant or discordant? What are the reservations one imposes on the other?

The Laboratory School of Indiana State Teachers College offers in this and the May issues some of the co-ordinations it has effected.

The *Teachers College Journal* seeks to present competent discussions of professional problems in education, and toward this end restricts its contributing personnel to those of training and experience in the field. The *Journal* does not engage in re-publication practice, in the belief that previously published material, however creditable, has already been made available to the professional public through its original publication.

Manuscripts concerned with controversial issues are welcomed, with the express understanding that all such issues are published without editorial bias or discrimination.

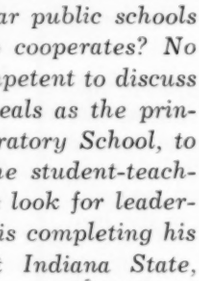
Articles are presented on the authority of their writers, and do not necessarily commit the *Journal* to points of view so expressed. At all times, the *Journal* reserves the right to refuse publication if in the opinion of the Editorial Board an author has violated standards of professional ethics or journalistic presentation.

Professional Laboratory Experiences in a Teachers College

BYRON L. WESTFALL
Director of Student Teaching and Principal of the Laboratory School Indiana State Teachers College

What should a Laboratory School attempt to accomplish on a Teachers College Campus? How does its aims and objectives differ from those of the regular public schools with which it also cooperates? No one is quite so competent to discuss these ideas and ideals as the principal of that Laboratory School, to whom the staff, the student-teachers, and the pupils look for leadership. Dr. Westfall is completing his inaugural year at Indiana State, having come in the fall of 1946.

It is a common observation that the extent to which words used in the classroom are meaningful to students is determined primarily by the ability of the teacher to relate these words to the perceptual experiences of the pupils. Therefore, the successful teacher attempts to see that his pupils have as wide a range of practical experiences as possible in order that such experiences may give meaning to what is being studied. In the same way the extent to which teachers in training are able to get a working knowledge of pupils, of the learning process, and of the school depends in large measure on the professional laboratory experiences provided by the training institution. It is the duty of the college, therefore, to provide each prospective teacher with a wide variety of contacts with individuals of various ages and to see that he has opportunities to meet typical educational problems throughout his training period. Just what these experiences are to be in a given case will be determined largely by the purposes of the institution, the philosophy of the faculty, the needs of the individual, and the available facilities.



Indiana State Teachers College is a more or less typical midwestern institution enrolling about 2400 students and preparing teachers for the elementary grades and all the common high school subjects. It offers graduate training leading to the Master's degree and serves as a regional college for many students who do not expect to become teachers.

Although operated by the college, the campus Laboratory School, enrolling about 800 pupils ranging from kindergarten through the twelfth grade, is a unit of the public school system of Terre Haute. The student body of this school represents a more or less typical cross section of the school population. Hence, the Laboratory School has most of the problems common to other public schools without the limitations often ascribed to small laboratory schools with a selected enrollment. In addition to the campus school the college has access to all the other public schools in Terre Haute, as well as to certain nearby suburban and consolidated rural schools, when they are needed for student teaching purposes.

Provisions for teacher education are more or less conventional. That is, in a four-year period each student is expected to complete certain courses considered necessary in general education, to attain a reasonable command of one or more subject areas, to study certain courses in professional education, and to demonstrate his ability in student teaching.

Most of the undergraduate courses in education include directed individual and group observation as a regular part of the work. Some teachers of the so-called content subjects frequently take their classes to visit the campus laboratory school or some other school within convenient driving distance. Most of the teachers of special methods courses make relatively extensive use of the campus laboratory school for purposes of observation and participation on the part of the college students. Students are also encouraged to visit the campus laboratory school occasionally on their own initiative. When a student enrolls in student teaching during his senior year he has had, therefore, a relatively large number of contacts with boys and girls of school age—and, of course, is expected to have a reasonably good background of subject matter in his teaching field and in the theory of education and psychology.

Two twelve-week terms of student teaching are required of a student who expects to become a high school teacher. In rare cases a student may be excused from the second term, although the individual is unusual indeed who cannot profit from the second term. If a student wishes, he may elect a third term or, if it appears desirable, he may be required to complete a third term of student teaching. A student is assigned to a class in the campus laboratory school or in one of the co-operating public schools and reports daily to this class for an entire twelve-week term. The general plan of student teaching in the

elementary school is much the same as that in the high school except that at this level more time each day is spent in the laboratory school and more credit toward graduation is given for the work. In most cases it is considered advisable to change a student's schedule for the second term so that he will have contacts with another supervising teacher and school.

In addition to meeting his class for the specified time each day, the student teacher is expected to have a daily conference period with the supervising teacher for lesson planning and criticism. The student teacher is also available for assignment by the supervising teacher to special conference periods with pupils who may need extra help.

Although the classroom supervising teacher naturally has the chief responsibility for assisting the student teacher in his professional development during the period of student teaching, other representatives of the college also visit the student from time to time. One member of each college department is responsible for co-ordinating the work of the various student teachers in that particular area. In most cases this individual is also chairman of the corresponding department of the campus laboratory school and teacher of the special methods course in that particular area. Each of these departmental supervisors visits his student teachers every few days and holds weekly group conferences with student teachers and supervising teachers. The head of the corresponding college department is also invited to participate in such conferences. Co-ordination of the whole program of observation, demonstration, and student teaching is the responsibility of the director of the Division of Teaching, who is also principal of the campus laboratory school.

The work of student teaching begins with classroom observation and proceeds gradually until the student is able to handle the class satisfactorily by himself. In addition each student teacher is expected to participate, if possible, in certain community activities and in one or more extra-curricular school activities during his period of student teaching. The college departmental supervisor, or co-ordinator, is responsible for planning this part of the program with the student.

At the middle of the term each supervising teacher is asked to fill out an evaluation sheet showing the progress and quality of the student teacher's work. The student teacher is expected to discuss the evaluation sheet with both the supervising teacher and the college supervisor. At the end of the term a similar evaluation sheet prepared jointly by the supervising teacher, college supervisor, and the director of the Division of Teaching is filed for each student teacher.

This program does not represent any startling innovations and no claim is made that the practices described are ideal ones. On the other hand this plan of teacher education does represent a gradual development as experience through the years has shown the need for modification. Further changes are naturally in order as conditions show the need. Some of the major problems which, in the opinion of the writer, merit continuous study on the part of the college faculty are the following ones:

1. Just what professional laboratory experiences should every prospective teacher have prior to student teaching?

2. What program of individual guidance is needed to insure that each student gets the type of professional laboratory experiences best adapted to his particular needs?

3. To what extent can a campus laboratory school serve as a center for student teaching without affecting adversely its functions as a demonstration school?

4. To what extent should the campus laboratory school be used for experimental purposes?

5. If we assume that some experimentation should be done in the campus laboratory school, just what should be the nature of such work?

6. What curricular and extra-curricular offerings will best serve the needs of the pupils attending the campus laboratory school and at the same time enable the school to be of most service to the college students expecting to become teachers?

7. What special facilities for the instruction of handicapped children should be provided by the campus laboratory school and what use should college students make of such facilities?

8. What factors should determine who is admitted to student teaching?

9. What outlines, handbooks, or forms are needed to facilitate the operation of an effective student teaching program?

10. To what extent should student teaching be distributed over a relatively long period of time and to what extent should it be concentrated?

11. How can the work of the student teacher be evaluated accurately?

12. What off-campus facilities are needed in order to carry on an adequate program of student teaching?

13. For optimum efficiency of the work of a supervising teacher, what should be his teaching load and how can such a load be evaluated equitably?

14. In what ways should the work of the campus school and the off-campus laboratory schools represent typical practices and in what ways should their work be superior to that of the average school?

15. What should be the relationship between the public school district and the college in operating and financially supporting the campus laboratory school?

16. What financial arrangement should be made with off-campus schools and supervising teachers in

(*Continued on Page* 117)

Rhythm Band Orchestration

ESTHER OEHRING
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Indiana State Teachers College

Creative expression and free rhythms is one of the treasured outcomes of artistic teaching. Spontaneity and imagination offer emotional releases that make possible a freedom from pressure in children as well as adults. The article presented here tells a simple story of the gentle guidance which frees the simple artistry of children and lets them tell their story. These music activities were conducted in the public schools of Spokane, Washington, where Miss Oehring taught before coming to Indiana State Teachers College.

Rhythmic instruments were not new to our first grade children. We had had fun with them in kindergarten and interest in their use continued to run high.

The first rhythm band experiences in first grade were a continuation of those used in kindergarten which were to play our instruments to music with three-four, four-four, and two-four time. Sometimes we would be a marching band and sometimes we would be a concert band with solo instruments. Through a bit of experimenting and careful listening we found that the bells, tambourines, cymbals, and triangles made a ringing sound. Wood blocks, drums, and sticks made a heavy, tapping sound.

One day we listened to the music "Ride of the Amazons" in Arnold's *Book of Rhythms* to see if we could find out which part would be best for ringing instruments and which would be best for tapping instruments. It was decided that the high, soft parts of the music were best for the ringing instruments and the low, louder parts for the tapping instruments. Other music was used in this same way.

Rhythmic patterns were not new to us. We had stepped out our own patterns to music which was created especially for them. Dramatic interpretive rhythms fascinated us and we never tired pretending we were leaves, airplanes, witches, or pumpkins. It was out of this background of experiences that the idea of using patterns with rhythm band instruments developed.

The tambourine was chosen for the basic instrument of the orchestration. It is an instrument which can be used in a variety of different ways. We were familiar with three ways of playing it. They were:

knock, knock, knock, knock
shake, shake, shake, shake
knock, shake, shake.

These patterns were reviewed and the question asked, "Can you think of a different way to play the tambourine?" Several children tried but imitated the same patterns. Each was shown that his pattern was like the one which we already knew.

Then Jack started our creative thought with his pattern.

knock, knock, knock, knock
Continued shake.

David's pattern:

knock, knock, knock, knock,
knock, rest, knock, rest.

Katherine's pattern:

shake, shake, shake, rest
shake, rest, shake, rest.

Constance put a new rhythm to our knock, shake by reversing it. This is her pattern:

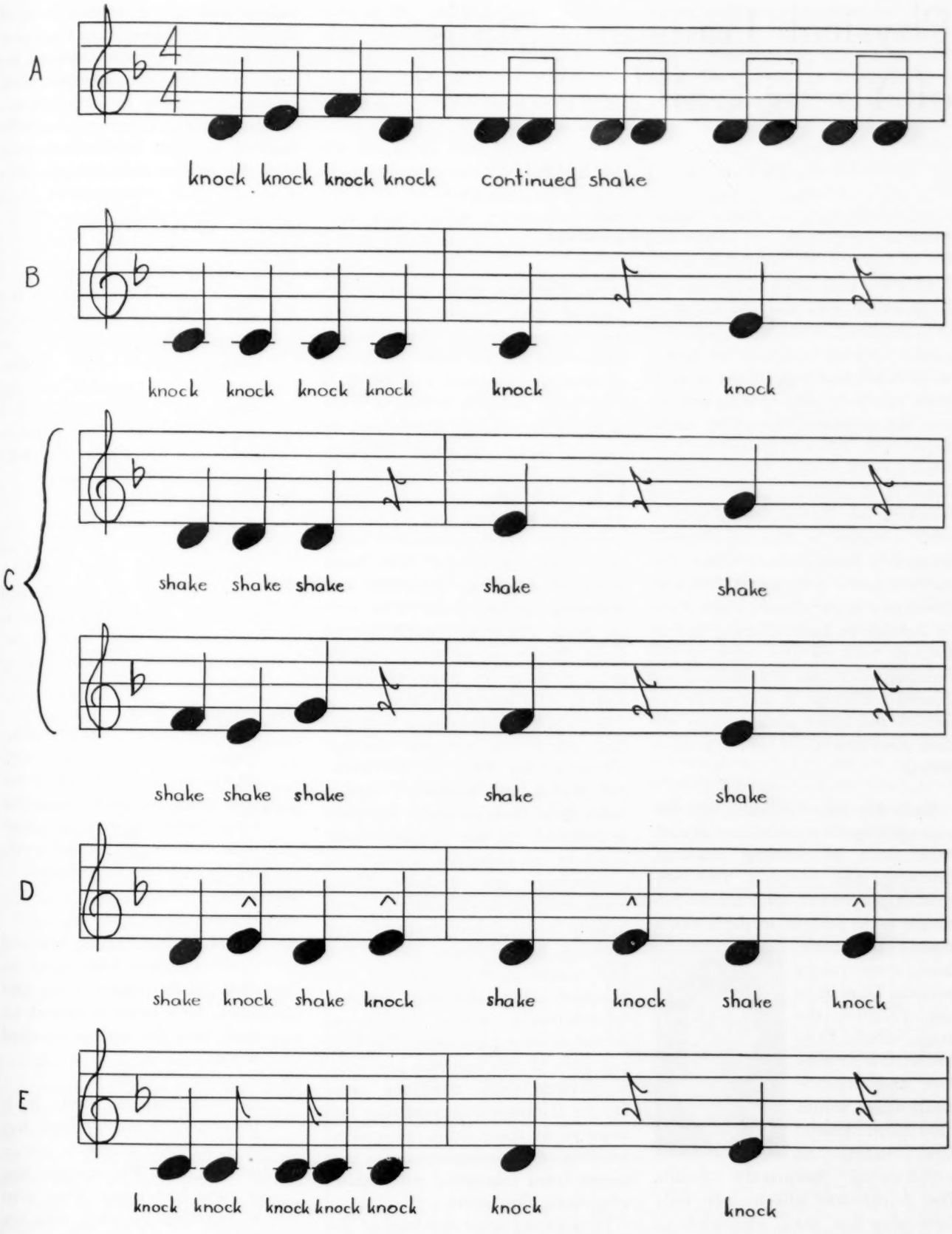
shake, knock, shake, knock

Robert's pattern of uneven rhythm was created to fit Constance's pattern. It is:

knock, knock, knock, knock,
knock
knock, rest, knock, rest.

Since it was impossible to find music to fit our patterns we created our own tunes. We had enjoyed experimenting with musical patterns on our new zylophone and playing the tunes in the book *Timothy Tunes*. The zylophone was familiar to us and the best instrument on which to create the musical patterns. As each pattern was played on the tambourine one of us who had an idea for a tune to match the tambourine pattern would play it. The tunes were written down and used as the basic musical patterns for the instrumental patterns. The musical patterns were arranged by the teacher into two compositions, transposed to piano music and played for the children. We decided that we could hear other instruments in the music and bells, triangles, sticks, and the cymbals were added.

The final step, then was to learn to play our own orchestration and music. At first there was some difficulty for all of us to remember the changes of patterns. The question was asked, "How do bands know what and when to play on their instruments?" Janet said the notes told them. She takes piano lessons. The notes of our tunes were written on the blackboard without staff or bars. Jack's pattern was written first. "How can the two parts of Jack's pattern be separated?" John suggested putting a straight line between the notes of each part. It was explained that in music the line between notes is called a bar and each part was called a measure. In one tune we noticed that some notes had flags on them and were played faster. They were eighth notes. Many of us had never seen them or been aware of them until now.



Children's rhythms: (A) Jack's pattern, music by Janet; (B) David's pattern, music by Susan; (C) Katherine's pattern, music by Judith; (D) pattern and music by Constance; (E) pattern and music by Robert.

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Physical Traits and Skills of Young Children

LORENE F. PERKINS
Special Teacher of Physical Education
Terre Haute Public Schools
Terre Haute, Indiana

Mrs. Perkins offers some specific suggestions as to how the teaching of physical education in the primary grades can be adapted to better meet individual differences in children. In a field basic to child growth and development, proposed techniques are offered toward an improved adjustment to children's needs and abilities. Mrs. Perkins received her baccalaureate degree with a major in Special Physical Education from Indiana State. For several years she taught Physical Education in the Crown Point Public Schools in Lake County, and in 1945-46 *was on the staff of the Laboratory School of Indiana State Teachers College. It was while she was in the latter position that the data were assembled for the present article.*

Each day many children are discouraged by their inabilities at such basic skills as running, catching, throwing, and jumping. The ridicule of playmates, who are so fortunate as to achieve in these skills, makes the problem even more serious. They have not reached the stage where they know how to analyze and practice skills which would help them. Therefore, habits of withdrawing frequently result. The frustration affects not only their play but their classwork as well. Since it is in the elementary schools that the abilities are developed or lost for physical achievement, the basic skills must be developed even sooner to prepare them not only for their future sports' life but for their own peace of mind and physical well being.

In other subjects testing is done in order to classify pupils and to have a "measuring stick" for diagnosis and achievement. So should it be with physical skills. What would be a better way of finding pupils who need guidance in these skills than by testing? The basic skills of running, catching, and throwing can be measured by simple tests. These are much needed since opinion is no more reliable as a measure of physical ability than it is of mental ability.

Skill tests should begin with the first grade and continue through all the grades. Tests for intermediate grades and secondary school years have been carefully analyzed and scaled. At the primary level, however, no objective measures of achievement are available. These measures are needed at this level to help in the development of large muscles before team games and fine muscle co-ordination are emphasized. They also give teachers information as to what can be expected of young children. The boys and girls of this age who are weak in physical skills need the satisfaction of discovering that they can improve in their skills, as well as needing the encouragement that comes from practicing with others who have like needs.

In working with children of the first three grades in the Laboratory School of Indiana State Teachers College, the writer undertook the task of scaling the development of skills. The standards were kept uniform throughout each class to insure accuracy in measurement. Points were given in each test according to the degree of skills reached by each child. Following is a list of the tests which were used and their explanations:

SKILL TESTS

Jumping:

1. Running Broad Jump
   Seven lines are placed on the floor. First the starting line is drawn. The second line is drawn twenty-seven inches from the starting line and the others are drawn nine inches apart from that. One point is given for each line the child successfully jumps over.
2. Jumping for Height
   The child stands against the wall and places a mark as high as he can reach. Next he jumps as high as possible and makes a mark. One point is recorded for each inch in between the two marks (up to six).
3. Jump the Rope
   This is done individually. Twelve successive jumps with no misses earns a score of six. One point for each successive jump before a miss is otherwise earned. No special method of jumping is required.

Throwing:

4. Hit the Pen
   Stand on the starting line and throw six bean bags at an Indian Club placed nine feet away. One point is scored for each time the club is knocked down.
5. Accuracy Throw
   A volleyball is used. It is thrown at a circle three feet in diameter which is drawn on the wall. The starting line is nine feet away. One point is recorded for each time the ball hits in the circle.
6. Distance Throw
   From the starting line, a soc-

cer ball is thrown overhead as far as possible. Lines are drawn on the floor at nine feet, eleven feet, thirteen feet, fifteen feet, nineteen feet and twenty-five feet. One point is recorded for each line the ball crosses before hitting the floor.

Catch:

7. Catch a volleyball thrown about waist high. The teacher does the throwing to insure accuracy. The distance of the throw is about nine feet. The score should be the number of times the ball is caught out of six.

Rhythm:

8. March keeping time with the Tom Tom. A score of six is given for perfect time. A score of five is given for keeping time with the music most of the time. A score of three is given for a definite rhythm but not in time with the beat. No score is given in the very few cases where no rhythm is discernable.

Agility:

9. Forward Roll
   On the mats, a good roll (well rounded position with no pressure on the top of the head) receives six points. A roll but not in good form receives three points.
10. Backward Roll
    On the mats, a roll without any assistance receives six points regardless of form. One with teacher assistance receives three points.

In all the tests, six was the highest possible score. Several chances were given the child in each test and the best score recorded.

A record of these tests was kept in chart form, with all the names down the left and the tests across the top. The points were scored under each test and totaled at the far right. In this manner, the whole picture was there for each child and in relation to the whole class. Since with this type of chart the recording could be done on the spot as the test was given, it simplified bookkeeping.

The graph which follows shows the placement of each child in the group after all the tests were tabulated. The names were included in the blocks so that anyone looking at the graph could immediately see the child in relation to all others. This also makes comparison between physical and mental tests quite easy in relation to group placement. Sixty is the highest possible cumulated score since there were ten tests.

The results of the testing program are:

1. The chart shows the strong and weak points of individuals and groups.
2. The children's co-operation reveals the improvement of attitude toward those who are poorer in skills.
3. The graph reveals the attainment in all skills which can be compared with other phases of growth and development.
4. The repeat test serves as a measure of improvement and may be used for home reports.
5. The repeat test serves as a measure of teaching.

These results should not be used as a grading system. If grades are required, however, when the same tests are repeated, the advancement made will serve as a sound basis for grades. In this way, the factors which account for variations will not affect the grades. The following factors account for the variations in skill:

1) previous experience; 2) body build; 3) muscle co-ordination; 4) balance and the senses.

The testing program is not complete until the repeat test has been given, evaluated and studied by all the teachers concerned. Needless to say, it is the work and activities carried on between the first and second test that is of the most value. If no remedial work is done, then the full benefit of the program is not reaped. The teacher will be aided in the charts and placement but nothing will have been gained for the child.

Squad work proves to be quite efficient in the remedial work which follows testing. In this way, squads needing work in jumping, throwing, running or some other skill can be working on this particular skill through games catering to those sets of large muscles. A program of leadership can be launched along with the squad work paving the way for various activities to be carried on at one time. It is important however, that the children vote for their own

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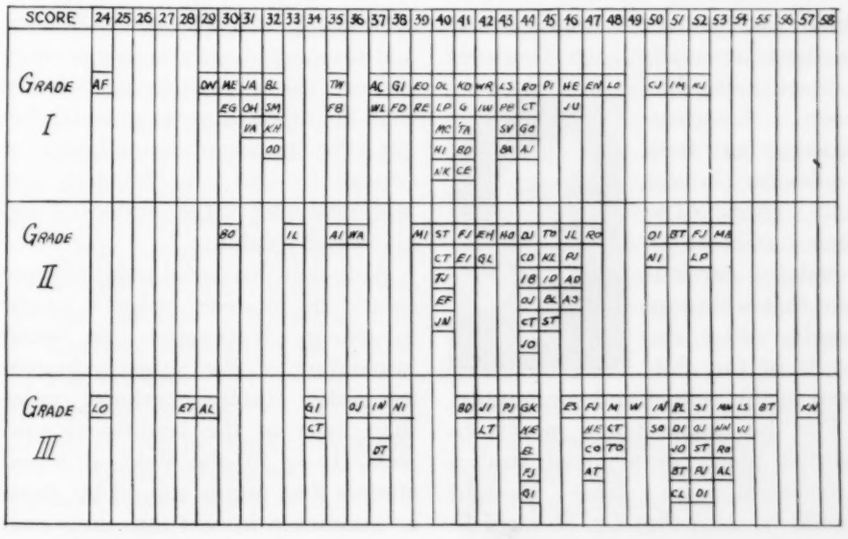

Placement of each child in group according to totals of test scores.

Social Studies Curriculum Revision in Grades Seven and Eight

FLORISE HUNSUCKER
Associate Professor of Social Studies
Indiana State Teachers College

The emerging curriculum is probably never in so permanent a state of impermanence as in the field of the social studies, where a panorama of the change in human activities from day to day makes grossly impossible any standards of inflexibility. Probably it is likewise true that nowhere should greater sensitivity to such need be found than in a laboratory school, or in an experimental teaching situation. To meet the challenge of an improved curriculum, Miss Hunsucker proposes adaptations here described, in an attempt to move from a static present to a movable, dynamic future.

The courses in social studies for grades seven and eight in the Laboratory School have been determined more or less by what was being taught in the city schools, since the turnover in these grades has been unusually large. The basic subject matter has been American History in both grades for the last four years. The time has come to develop a curriculum that will more nearly fit the needs of the children in this school and community.

For the broadest and most substantial plank in a social studies curriculum, the same thought should be used that Dr. Howard E. Wilson discusses in his article "On Making Good Citizens"—"Many of the topics and subjects to the study of which we now give school time, some of the subjects hallowed by tradition as well as some of the so-called fads of education, do not contribute much to the efficiency of the pupils. Some years before his death, Gamaliel Bradford wrote an article for an obscure New England journal which seems to me to suggest the best basis for a democratically sound curriculum. Bradford suggested that the common denominator of education in a society such as ours should be the study of man himself. In a recent report of the president of the Rockefeller Foundation, the same is emphasized; President Fosdick points out that the researches financed by the Foundation increasingly focus on man's study of mankind—the study of man's physical structure and well-being, of his hopes and fears and dreams, of his creative powers, and of the capacities and drives that dominate him as a social being. The common denominator of education ought to be the study and understanding of the individual and his social relations."[1]

Although this social point of view should be in every subject taught in schools, it becomes the broad foundation of the subjects known as social studies, perhaps, more than most of the traditional subjects. It is in the field of social studies that pupils should be given a "maximum insight into their own personalities and into that complex pattern of personal relations we call society."

With this broad conception of the function of the social studies, ten general objectives have been set up for our social studies work in the seventh and eighth grades—to help the child.

OBJECTIVES OF THE GROUP

1. To get along well in the school, in the home, and in the community.
2. To participate in the social group.
3. To understand the individual's rights and duties in relation to the rights and duties of the others in the social group.
4. To understand and respect law, order, and honest work.
5. To understand and respect other peoples.
6. To develop efficient study and work habits.
7. To learn how to use the appropriate tools for solving the many different problems that will arise.
8. To use wisely leisure time.
9. To acquire knowledge and culture.
10. To build for a vocation.

SOCIAL STUDIES 7B

This group of pupils will help to build a new course of study this year, which, we hope, will develop eventually a more cooperative type of citizen in the school, in the home, and in the community. No definite plans have been made for this work except the consideration of a few concepts that certainly will become planks in the construction of a new course. The interests and needs of the pupils will determine largely the units of work to be developed.

Definite emphasis must be placed on the general objectives that were listed in Bulletin Two in the Seven B social studies. They are as follows:

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[1] Howard E. Wilson, "On the Making of Citizens," *Social Education*, p. 226, April, 1939.

1. To get along well in the school, in the home, and in the community.
2. To participate in the social group.
3. To understand the individual's rights and duties in relation to the rights and duties of others in the social group.
4. To understand and respect law, order, and honest work.
5. To understand and respect other peoples.
6. To develop efficient study and work habits.
7. To learn how to use the appropriate tools for solving the many different problems that will arise.
8. To use wisely leisure time.
9. To acquire knowledge and culture.
10. To build for a vocation.

Now as to specific objectives, perhaps, a few statements could serve merely as suggestions in order that both teacher and pupils may not go astray and lose sight of the general objectives that should guide the day by day procedures.

1. Understanding of
   a. What the school, the home, and the local community has to give to the individual.
   b. What the individual in turn has to give to the school, the home, and the local community.
2. Habits and Skills—to have practice in—
   a. Finding materials
   b. Gathering data
   c. Evaluating materials
   d. Organizing materials
   e. Caring for materials
   f. Writing well-organized paragraphs
   g. Making simple outlines
   h. Taking notes on written and oral materials
   i. Writing page reports
   j. Giving interesting and accurate talks and reports
   k. Making maps
   l. Interpreting maps
   m. Using different kinds of tools
   n. Doing one's own work
   o. Doing neat and acceptable work
   p. Doing things on time
3. Attitudes—to develop attitudes of—
   a. Responsibility
   b. Co-operation
   c. Tolerance
   d. Open-mindedness
   e. Loyalty
   f. Honesty
   g. Intellectual self-confidence
   h. Social self-confidence

In regard to the concepts that seem to be the most important for this year's work, the ones listed here are temporary and may be changed as the work progresses. Sound psychology approves the general procedure of starting with the interests closest to the child when he starts to school, so it seems perfectly logical and correct to draw upon the school interests for first concepts, then proceed to the home interests, then to the community interests.

A. *Seven "B" Class Interests*
   1. Friends
   2. Leaders
   3. Followers
   4. Class Organization
   5. Class Laws or Rules
   6. Class Loyalty
   7. Class Fun

B. *School Interests*
   1. Friends in Other Classes
   2. Leaders in Other Classes
   3. Followers in Other Classes
   4. School Laws or Rules
   5. School Organizations
   6. School Loyalty
   7. School Problems
   8. School Programs of Study
   9. School Fun

C. *Home Interests*—it will be difficult to determine just what lines of thought will develop here, but one can be sure that most interests will fall in the following groups—
   1. Family
   2. Duties of family members
   3. Living conditions
   4. Occupations
   5. Income
   6. Expenditures
   7. Luxuries
   8. Conversations
   9. Health
   10. Leisure time
   11. Miscellaneous concepts

The information obtained from the children will furnish the teacher with a fair picture of the different homes represented in the class group. Complete reports should be written up and kept on file. These reports will guide the teachers of home economics, industrial arts, art, music, English, and social studies in helping to make more efficient and pleasant the home life of the families represented.

D. *Community Interests*—the family interest will certainly lead to the subject of community interests that will include such concepts as—
   1. Community
   2. Survey of our community
   3. Government—city, township, and county
   4. Sanitation
   5. Health
   6. Protection
   7. Taxes
   8. Voting—citizens
   9. Safety
   10. Occupations
   11. Education
   12. Religion
   13. Amusements
   14. Future

There will be many other subjects of interest discussed; so no attempt will be made here to organize in a logical way the concepts mentioned above. That will be done as the work progresses.

It is to be hoped that the complete study of the school, home and community groups will lead the pupils into larger fields such as the citizen in the state, the citizen in the United States, and finally the individual as a member of a world group.

No time limits can be set up. It should proceed as efficiently as possible and hope that dreams of a more functional social studies program will be the outcome of this year's work.

SEVEN "A" SOCIAL STUDIES

This group started its work last year in American history and will continue these units as has been done for the last four years.

I. Objectives—

A. Understandings of—

1. How the English colonies in America gained their independence from England.
2. How our national government was built and what our democratic form of government means to us.
3. How the newly organized government met domestic and foreign problems from the time of Washington to the time of Jackson.
4. How expansion in the new country developed both nationalism and sectionalism.
5. How the nation was divided on the slavery question.

B. Habits and skills

1. To find materials
2. To evaluate materials
3. To organize materials
4. To care for materials
5. To write well-organized paragraphs
6. To write reports at least one page in length
7. To make simple outlines
8. To take notes on materials read
9. To take notes on talks
10. To give *orally* short reports before the class
11. To make and interpret accurate maps
12. To use such tools as graphs, time lines, charts, pictures, etc., to help solve problems
13. To do one's own work
14. To do neat work
15. To do things on time
16. To think logically

C. Attitudes—

1. To develop a feeling of responsibility for the work to be done.
2. To develop such attitudes as co-operation, tolerance, open-mindedness, loyalty, social responsibility, and intellectual self-confidence.

II. Basic Text—Vannest and Smith, *Socialized History of the United States.*

III. Units of Work—

A. How the United States Gained Its Independence

1. Text pp. 89-142
2. Time limit—five weeks
3. Topics to be discussed
   a. England's New Colonial Policy
   b. Colonial Views on Taxation
   c. English Views on Taxation
   d. Acts Passed by Parliament
   e. Events that Drove the Mother Country and the Colonists Farther Apart
   f. The First Continental Congress
   g. The Colonists Fight for Their Rights as Englishmen
   h. The Declaration of Independence
   i. The Actual War
   j. Independence Won
4. Some illustrative Historical Literature
   "The Pilot", Cooper
   "Richard Carvel", Churchill
   "Alice of Old Vincennes", Thompson
   "Janice Meredith", Ford
   "True to the Old Flag", Henty
   "The Spy", Cooper
   "The Tory Lover", Jewett
   "Morgan's Men", True
   "Paul Revere's Ride" Longfellow
   "The Reckoning", Chambers
   "Hugo Wynne", Mitchell
   "The Young Continentals at Trenton", McIntyre
   "A Little Maid of Old New York", Curtis
   "A Little Maid of Old Philadelphia", Curtis
   "Washington, A Virginia Cavalier", Mace
   "The Spy of Yorktown", Stoddard
   "Hero of Stony Point, Antony Wayne", Barnes
   "Tom Strong, Washington's Scout", Mason
   "The King's Powder", Dudley
   "Jack Gregory", Cross
   "Simon Kenton the Scout", Corby
   "A Morgan Rifleman", Nichols
   "Peggy Owen, Patriot", Madison
   "Peggy Owen at Yorktown", Madison
   "Patriot Lad at Old Boston", Carter
   "The Green Mountain Boys", Thompson
   "Washington's Young Aids", Tomlinson
   "John Paul Jones", Tooker
   "Hearts Courageous", Rives

B. How Our National Government Was Organized

1. Text pp. 143-169
2. Time limit—three weeks
3. Topics to be discussed—
   a. The First Steps toward Union in the Colonies
   b. The Articles of Confederation
   c. The Alexandria and Annapolis Conventions
   d. The Constitutional Convention
   e. The Great Compromises
   f. The Constitution
   g. The Beginning of Political Parties
   h. Ratification of the Constitution
   i. Starting the Government to Work
4. Some Illustrative Historical Literature
   "The Conqueror", Atherton
   "Peggy Owen and Liberty", Madison
   "Duke of Stockbridge", Bellamy
   "Trinity Bells", Barr
   "Side Lights on American History", Elson, Vol. 1
   "Formation of the Union",

Hart
"The Critical Period of American History", Fiske

C. How Our Newly Organized Government Was Drawn into European Affairs
1. Text pp. 170-209
2. Time limit—five weeks
3. Topics to be discussed—
a. The First Quarter Century of Our Government Introduced Most of Our National Problems, Policies, and Line of Development
b. Disturbing Foreign Affairs
c. Downfall of Federalism
d. The Jeffersonian Period
e. The Causes and Results of the War of 1812
f. Commercial Independence Won
4. Some Illustrative Historical Material
"The Crossing", Churchill
"The Magnificent Adventure", Hough
"Blennerhasset", Pidgin
"As the Crow Flies", Meigs
"Toggo", Krapp
"Lewis Rand", Johnson
"Barbary Bo", Kauffman
"Lost with Lieutenant Pike", Sabin
"Imprisoned Midshipmen", Seawell
"Commodore Bainbridge", Barnes
"America, the Great Adventure", Krapp
"Opening the West with Lewis and Clark", Sabin
"For the Freedom of the Sea", Brady
"With Perry on Lake Erie", Kaler
"With Porter in the Essix", Kaler
"When Wilderness was King", Parrish
"Loyal Traitors", Barnes
"The Star Spangled Banner", Key
"A Herald of the West", Altsheler
"Yankee Ships and Yankee Sailors", Barnes
"Old Hickory's Prisoner", Marshall
"The Boys with Old Hickory", Tomlinson
"The Hero of Erie", Barnes
"Days of the Commander", Lamprey
"Dolly Madison, Who Guarded the Nation's Treasurers", Tappan

D. How Expansion Developed Both Nationalism and Sectionalism
1. Text pp. 210-244
2. Time limit—four weeks
3. Topics to be discussed—
a. The Formative Period
b. The Westward Movement
c. The Passing of the American Frontier
d. The Era of Andrew Jackson
e. The Mexican Period
4. Some Illustrative Historical Literature
Compton's Encyclopedia—
"The Last Frontier, America's Greatest Romance", f-12-17
"The Missouri Compromise", M-210-211
"The Monroe Doctrine", M-241-242
The Book of Knowledge
"The Growing West", Vol. VI, 1905-1912
"The Erie Canal", Vol. XIII, 4881-4888
"The Man Who Always Did His Best", Vol. III, 1043-1045
The World Book—
"Administration of Andrew Jackson", 8307
"Andrew Jackson", 3597-3604
"Stories of the Great West" Roosevelt
"On to Oregon", Morrow
"54'-40' or Fight", Hough
"The Overland Trail", Kauffman
"The Texan Scouts", Altscheler
"Into Mexico with General Scott", Sabin
"Sam Houston", Bryan
"The Story of Davy Crockett", Corby
"Kit Carson", Abbott
"Fighting with Fremont", McNeil
"The Boy Forty-Niners", McNeil
"With Crockett and Bowie", Munroe
"The Golden Days of '49", Munroe
"With Carson and Fremont", Sabin
"Gold Seekers of '49", Sabin
"The Covered Wagon", Hough
"Splendid Idle Forties", Atherton
"The Prairies", Cooper

EIGHT "B" SOCIAL STUDIES

This group will continue its work in American History as was done last year.

I. Objectives

A. Understandings of—
1. How geographical differences brought about economic and social differences in sections of the United States
2. How the Civil War nearly wrecked the country
3. How the Union was restored
4. How the United States has become the great agricultural nation
5. How the United States has become the greatest manufacturing nation in the world
6. How the United States has built up the world's greatest transportation and communication system.

B. Habits and Skills—The same habits and skills as listed for the Seven "A" class will be developed for the Eight "B" class. They should become more perfected in this grade. Eight "B" pupils should be

able to handle materials more efficiently, study more effectively, write better papers, give longer and better organized reports, and do their work without so much direction.

C. Attitudes—Eight "B" pupils should have a deeper feeling of responsibility and co-operation in helping to work out the problems of all the different groups with which they are associated.

II. Basic text—Vannest and Smith, *Socialized History of the United States*

III. Units of Work

A. How Slavery Divided the Country
1. Text pp. 287-328
2. Time limit—four weeks
3. Topics to be discussed—
a. The universality of slavery
b. The reasons for the growth of slavery and sectionalism in the United States
c. The three views of the abolition of slavery
d. Abolition drives the North and South apart
e. The Compromise of 1850
f. The Kansas-Nebraska bill
g. The Dred Scott decision
h. The Lincoln-Douglas debates
i. John Brown's raids
j. The election of 1860
k. The secession
4. Some Illustrative Historical Literature
"From Columbus to Lincoln", Logie
"Uncle Tom's Cabin", Stowe
"Abraham Lincoln", Lockridge
"Lincoln: The Man of the People", Mace
"Susanna and Tristam", Allee
"Cudjo's Cave", Trowbridge
"America, the Great Adventure", Krapp

B. How the Civil War was Fought and the Union Restored
1. Text pp. 329-388
2. Time limit—four weeks
3. Topics to be discussed—
a. The military aspects of the war
b. Life in the different sections during the war
c. The outcome of the war
d. The plans for reconstruction in the South
e. The fruits of reconstruction
f. The end of the era ...
4. Some Illustrative Historical Material
"The Guns of Bull Run", Altscheler
"The Guns of Shiloh", Altscheler
"The Scouts of Stonewall", Altscheler
"The Sword of Antietam", Altscheler
"The Star of Gettysburg", Altscheler
"The Tree of Appomattox", Altscheler
"The Rock of Chickamauga", Altscheler
"The Romance of the Civil War", Hart
"Abraham Lincoln, the Liberator of the Slaves", Gordy
"Brave Deeds of the Confederate Soldiers", Bruce
"U. S. Grant", Coombs
"The Life of Robert E. Lee for Boys and Girls", J. G. de Roulhac
"On the Trail of Grant and Lee", Hill
"An Army Boy of the Sixties", Ostrander
"Stories of the Civil War", Blaisdell
"On the Old Keersarge", Brady
"Stories of Dixie", Nicholson
"The Recollections of a Drummer Boy", Kieffer
"The Cavalier", Cable
"Two Little Confederates", Page
"A Boy at Gettysburg", Singmaster
"The Drummer Boy", Trowbridge
"Three Scouts", Trowbridge
"The Boys' Life of Abraham Lincoln", Nicolay
"Famous Cavalry Leaders" Johnston
"Longshanks", Meader
"Barbara Fritche", Whittier
"With Lee in Virginia", Henty
"Tom of the Raiders", Bishop
"Boys' Life of U. S. Grant", Stevens
"Sheridan's Ride", Read
"O Captain! My Captain", Whitman
"Boys' Life of U. S. Grant" Stevens
"Sheridan's Ride", Read
"The Gettysburg Address", Lincoln
"American Hero Stories", Tappan
"Hero Tales from American History", Roosevelt
"The Clansman", Dixon
"Red Rock", Page
"A Fools Errand", Tourgee
"John March, Southerner", Cable
"When the Ku Klux Klan Rode", Damee

C. How the United States Has Become a Great Agricultural Nation
1. Text pp. 245-286
2. Time limit—two weeks
3. Topics to be discussed—
a. Review of the Geography of the United States
b. Colonial Agriculture
c. Agriculture in the South
d. Agriculture in the Mid-West and West
e. The Agricultural Revolution
f. Farm Conditions Today
4. Some Illustrative Histori-

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Motivation in The Elementary Classroom

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One of the major integrative functions of a laboratory school in a teacher education function is the opportunity thus offered for prospective teachers to observe in practice the methods and techniques discussed in content courses. An excellent example of such integration is offered in this article by Mr. Coburn, prepared by him as a student in a class in Educational Psychology.

Mr. Coburn has studied at Johnson Bible College (Manhattan, Kansas). Prior to his army service he was attached to the Social Service Department at Knoxville, Tennessee, where he did welfare and rehabilitation work. He was an army instructor in Roentgenology at Fitzsimmon's General Hospital at Denver, Colorado; and in radio operations at Manila, in the Philippines.

He is primarily interested in radio broadcasting, and its educational functions.

The twentieth century has been exciting insofar as educational methods are concerned. Prior to 1900 most educators held the following attitude, as expressed by Aristotle: " . . . all learning is accompanied with pain." The theory of teaching today is based on quite another idea. Education should not be accompanied by pain, but rather it should be based on the pleasure involved with mastering an interesting or useful subject. If properly taught, a class need be neither painful nor boring. Many devices have been brought into play to make school life more pleasant. Classrooms have been re-styled and modernized to make them more healthful and hospitable. Books and other printed aids have been written and re-edited to present useful knowledge in terms and situations in accord with the students' present and future life. Even the teacher has been changed: the days of the narrow instructor who assigns dry facts and specific data for memorization are numbered.

Prior to this new era of teaching, the most common source of motivation was the report card. Proper motivation neither starts nor does it stop with this device. The older student's incentive can be increased often if he is shown the relationship of his studies to his future life in a business, trade, profession, or in plain citizenship. The elementary teacher must motivate her children in a different manner. A series of studies was recently concluded by a 3-B class at the Laboratory School of Indiana State Teachers College, which show the motivation used by one teacher.

The instructor launched a program of nutrition. Most of her class were properly fed, but some of the group showed definite nutritional defects. The entire group had yet to be made acquainted with the basic needs of the body, and the benefits derived from proper food habits. The course of study started with a general discussion of food habits. Food groups were the next topic for discussion. To add interest, the teacher obtained a large graph showing the seven classes of food. It was explained that to remain healthy one needs to eat daily food from each of the seven classes. Alongside the graph were posted seven large sheets of paper, approximately three by five feet. Each sheet was entitled "Group I, Group II, Group VII." On these sheets the children pasted pictures of food clipped from food advertisements, each picture being placed on the sheet of the food class which it represented.

When class interest was again waning, the teacher desired some device which would return it to a high level. Previously the group had registered rapt attention on drama, and she decided to capitalize on that fact. Knowing of the interest of the writer in radio as an educational means, he was asked to assist in preparing a radio program that would be both educational and interesting. Obviously, only one small part of the nutrition program could be used, and it was decided that the story of bread would be most suitable.

The writer was invited to drop in daily and take such notes as might be needed in preparing a script. The visiting hour followed a short lunch period, a natural start for any class in nutrition.

On the day of the first discussion, bread was used as a part of the lunch. This involved the purchase of a loaf and a committee visited a neighborhood store. Upon their return, their teacher suggested to the committee that they enact the transaction for the benefit of the entire class. The group interest soared immediately, the scene was presented with delight and the speeches were recorded for future reference. At the end of the skit, the teacher lead the group in a discussion of bread, and so adroitly was this done that in a few minutes it was decided to look into the production of bread at greater length. At this point one of the children suggested that they produce a play telling of their project. This suggestion became more insistent as the study progressed. The child's idea became the first step toward

gaining the idea of a radio program from the class.

One of the pupil's father was a sales manager for a large bakery, and arrangements were made for the lad's father to conduct the class on a tour of the bakery which he represented. The arrangements and the plans for this tour came largely from the class, guided only slightly by the teacher. The trip was interesting for both the children and the teacher and assistants who accompanied them. Upon the return to the classroom an enactment of the trip was carried out. It was amazing to see the number of terms, peculiar to the baking industry, that the children had picked up on the visit. Some of these terms and their explanations follow:

Overhead-proofer—Enclosed area in which bread is raised.

Rounder—Machine which makes round balls out of bread strips.

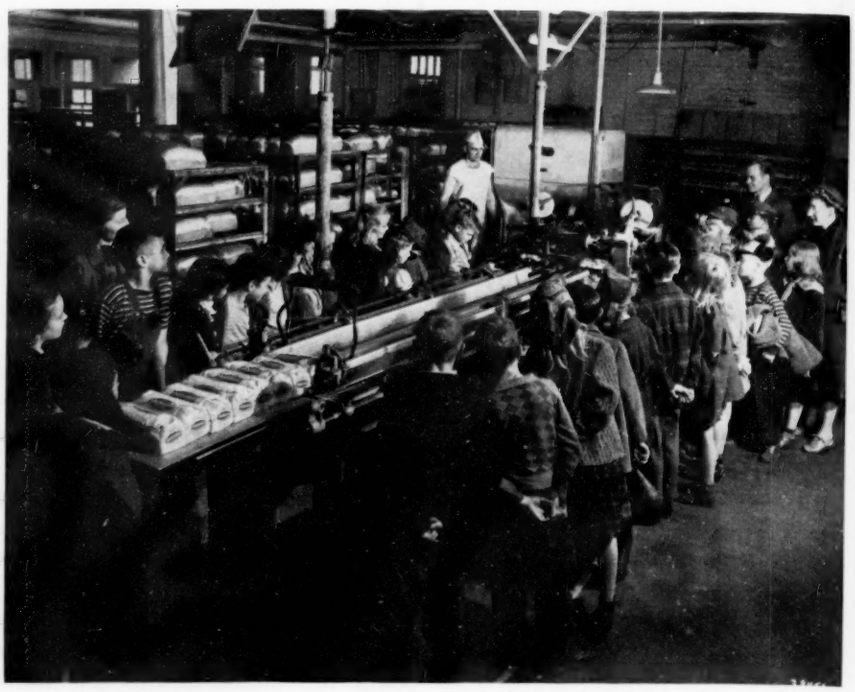
Divider—Machine which cuts and divides bread.

Sponge—Dough prior to first raising and the subsequent addition of adequate condiments.

Out of this trip came a question in regard to the source of air bubbles in bread. The teacher lead the class in an experiment to show the presence of gluten in wheat flour and its absence in corn meal. When placed in water, cornmeal and wheat displayed different propensities.

Following the bakery trip, and the learning that bread is made of wheat flour, it naturally arose that a study of mills should be made. Grinding and screening were studied and discussed. Ancient methods were mentioned and the modern methods were shown in contrast. This discussion led then to a study of the source of the miller's wheat.

All of the children had seen fields of wheat and some had seen it harvested. Being city children, however, the agricultural picture as a whole was definitely hazy. Stories of agriculture were taken from the library and pictures of farming implements were cut from magazines. The group wrote stories on the use of farm implements and by means of such stories, reading, and discussion, the knowledge grew. Again the group found new words to learn. Among them were: disc, harrow, and combine.



The starting point: a guided tour through the bakery.

After the study of agriculture another part of the skit was produced with a mythical "Uncle Jim" telling a group of visiting children how wheat is sowed, raised, and harvested.

During all this period since the trip to the grocery, the same boy who had previously suggested presenting a stage play had re-iterated, time and again, that same suggestion. Their teacher decided to use some means of bringing from the class the idea of a radio play. In the midst of the clamor for a stage play, she asked, "What kinds of plays are there?" Immediately the class thought of stage plays and moving pictures, and after a few minutes someone suggested the radio drama. As soon as it was mentioned, the entire class enthusiastically demanded a radio play. At this point the writer was introduced as a "radio man," and they turned to him for help in arranging a script.

Inasmuch as few of the class had even seen a radio studio, the job seemed quite formidable. It was arranged for the class to watch a radio program presented by Indiana State Teachers College over station WBOW. The program they attended was "The Story Princess." The children received from this program the fundamentals of scripts, sound effects, microphones, announcer, control room, and director; all became interesting and vital to them. Quickly they seized upon these words and incorporated them into their vocabulary.

Upon returning to the classroom the program they had just heard was discussed and the writing of the script was started. In writing the script, the statements of the children were adopted insofar as was practical. Dialogue from the class discussion, stories, and class playlets were used.

It was decided that the script should begin with a scene in the home. The characters used were a mother, daughters, and a son. Later

in the script, as the need arose, a father, store clerk, and an Uncle Jim were added. The script started with a journey to the store by the children to buy a loaf of bread for lunch. This brought in the grocery store scene which had been done before. Next, in response to queries of the children about the baking of bread, the mother called a bakery and arranged a visit for her children. To show the actual scene in the bakery would have been very difficult due to sound effects, so the children related their bakery visit to their mother on the evening following the trip.

The story of milling and the processing of wheat was given by the father of the children. When he returned home from work, his family asked him about flour mills. He explained the processes by which flour is made from wheat and arranged a visit at the farm of his brother (the children's Uncle Jim) to see a combine.

The farm visit consisted of an explanation of the combine and the agriculture of wheat by Uncle Jim. He told of the problems of preparing a seed bed and the differences between spring and winter wheat.

Rehearsal for the broadcast.

The play then came to a close with the announcer summing up what the children had learned in their study.

A sound effects committee was appointed and quite realistically made footsteps, slammed doors, and simulated the dialing of telephones.

The final production took place in the classroom with cardboard microphones and a cardboard control room, complete with electronic devices (wooden boxes) and wires (twine). Two of the boys sat in the control room, our engineers. The props were made by the group in art class, and no expense or waste of time was necessitated.

One difficulty which other groups of the same age might find would be in the selection of readers to fill the various roles. Fortunately, this class of thirty had a number of children whose reading was better than average. The expressiveness of the voice is, of course, very important in radio.

The most interesting feature of the program, from first to last, was the motivating factors involved. Suggestions of the teacher were put so adroitly that they seemingly evolved from the class. Group interest remained high and as a result of that interest, the children received much more from the course than they would have under traditional methods of teaching. Their knowledge did not mere-

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On the air!

The Improvement of Eating Habits of Primary Children

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The use of the experiential unit, called by other such names as Deweyan unit, activity program, or projects, will long be synonymous with superior teaching and active learning. The nutrition project and its related activities, described in the following article, were conducted by Miss Walters in a primary class in the Laboratory School.

"The most fundamental nutritional needs in every school is that drastic changes be effected in the attitudes, the diets, and the health practices of its children and the homes from which they come." [1] In order to determine what attitudes and what changes in the diets and in the health practices of the children should be stressed, it was deemed advisable to conduct a survey of the children's eating habits, and to use information so gained as the basis of a classroom teaching unit.

This study was conducted in a second and third grade room of the Laboratory School of the Indiana State Teachers College during one school year. The 45 children in the study ranged in chronological ages from 7 to 10½ years. The intelligence quotients ranged from 80 to 130.

One morning and the following afternoon, the children were asked to make a list of what they had had for breakfast and lunch, respectively. If a child did not know how to spell a word, the teacher wrote it on the blackboard. For the children who were unable to write, the list was made by the teacher. After the lists were written, each list was checked individually with the child and such questions were asked as, "Did you have butter on your toast?" and so forth. No comment was made as to the choice of food. Tables I and II show these findings. The following week the children were asked to have their parents keep a record of what they ate for the entire day. This was motivated by the teacher who suggested that perhaps the children would like to make a large valentine and have their parents write the day's menu on it. While only 19 reports were sent in by the parents, the writer feels that it covered a cross-section of the children, as the reports were not only from the better homes but included many from the poorer ones, and from parents of children with low intelligence. These 19 reports are summarized in Tables III, IV, V, and VI.

The Seven Basic Foods chart as prepared by the Federal Security Agency were used as a guide or criteria for the nutritional standards in this report.

In addition to the above foods, children reported coffee, jelly, cookies, doughnuts, pancakes, pie, and rice.

Examination of Table I shows that of the 39 children reported, 6 children, or 15% did not have any breakfast. Further examination shows that 30 children out of the 33 children who did eat breakfast had milk. Over 40% had food from Group 5. It is worth noting that Group 6 is a popular choice for breakfast, while Group 2 and Group 7 are quite lacking in choice. Two children ate breakfast away from home, one at a hotel and the other at a drug store.

Children also reported gravy, coke, pop, spaghetti, macaroni,

TABLE I

Breakfast Menus as reported by 39 children

Food Groups	No. of children reporting	Per Cent
1. Green and Yellow Vegetables	0	0
2. Oranges, Tomatoes, Grapefruit	2	5
3. Potatoes and other Vegetables and Fruits	0	0
4. Milk and Milk Products	30	77
5. Meat, Poultry, Fish, or Eggs	16	41
6. Bread, Flour, and Cereals	25	64
7. Butter and Fortified Margarine	0	0
No breakfast	6	15

TABLE II

Lunch Menus as reported by 39 children

Food Groups	No. of children reporting	Per Cent
1. Green and Yellow Vegetables	0	0
2. Oranges, Tomatoes, Grapefruit	8	21
3. Potatoes and other Vegetables and Fruits	14	38
4. Milk and Milk Products	30	77
5. Meat, Poultry, Fish, or Eggs	29	74
6. Bread, Flour, and Cereals	21	54
7. Butter and Fortified Margarine	7	18

Not listed above: gravy, coke, pop, spaghetti, macaroni, noodles, pancakes, crackers

[1] Roberts, L. J. "Nutrition Work With Children." Chicago, University of Chicago, University of Chicago Press. 2d ed., 1935.

noodles, pancakes, and crackers.

Of the 39 children reported in Table II, only 29 ate their lunch at home. One child did not eat any lunch although he was at home during the noon hour. Three children had brought their lunch to school; five ate at restaurants, and one at a Day Nursery.

It is worth noting that no child ate foods that fall in Group I. Of the 8 children who are listed as eating food in Group 2 only one actually had a vegetable. This was a jar of cold tomatoes brought to school. The other 7 had canned tomato soup. There were 30 children, or about 77%, who had milk or cocoa for lunch. Examination of Group 5 shows that 74%, or nearly three-fourths, had meat, fish or eggs. Over one-half the children had food from Group 6. It is interesting to note that of the 13 who ate bread as bread, not sandwiches, only 7 had butter on it. None of the 8 who had sandwiches had butter on them. All the bread was white.

Below are listed the menus of the five children who ate at restaurants:

Child One: meat loaf, apple sauce, milk and cherry pie.

Child Two: hamburger, coconut pie and coke.

Child Three: chili, cocoa and strawberry sundae.

Child Four: hamburger, chocolate pie, coke.

Child Five: hamburger, jelly roll, and pop.

Child One and Child Three were accompanied by their parents.

TABLE V

Children's Intake of Milk at Meals
(19 children for one day)

Meals	*No.*	*%*
One meal	3	16
Two meals	5	26
Three meals	8	42
Not any milk	3	16
Total	19	100

Tables III, IV, V, and VI which summarize the children's food for one entire day show interesting facts. Table III shows that for breakfast only 16% had either oranges, tomatoes or grapefruit; that is, just one-sixth of the group ate fruit for breakfast. However, for dinner 32% had food from the above group, and at supper 21%. Examination of Table IV shows that 9 different children, or 47% of the entire group, had food from Group 2 sometime during the day. That is, less than one half of the children had oranges, tomatoes or grapefruit sometime during the day.

Only 5 children had butter or fortified margarine on their toast or bread for breakfast; 4 used it on their bread for dinner and 7 for supper. Table IV shows that 12 different children or 63% of the entire group had butter sometime during the day.

TABLE VI

Children Eating from each of the Basic 7 Groups
(19 children for one day)

	No.	*%*
Number of children eating from all 7 groups	1	.05
Number of children eating from 6 groups	7	.37
Number of children eating from 5 groups	5	.26
Number of children eating from 4 groups	5	.26
Number of children eating from 3 groups	0	0
Number of children eating from 2 groups	1	.05
Number of children eating from 1 group	0	0

TABLE III

Summary of One Day's Menu as reported by 19 children

Food Groups	*Breakfast*		*Dinner*		*Supper*	
	No.	*%*	*No.*	*%*	*No.*	*%*
1. Green and Yellow Vegetables	0	0	2	10	5	26
2. Oranges, Tomatoes, Grapefruit	3	16	6	32	4	21
3. Potatoes and other Vegetables and Fruits	0	0	9	47	12	63
4. Milk and Milk Products	14	74	11	58	10	53
5. Meat, Poultry, Fish, or Eggs	9	47	9	47	13	68
6. Bread, Flour, and Cereals	18	95	7	37	11	58
7. Butter and Fortified Margarine	5	26	4	21	7	37

Table IV

Children Eating Food from the 7 Basic Groups as reported by 19 children for one entire day

Food Groups	*No. of children*	*Per Cent*
1. Green and Yellow Vegetables	7	37−
2. Oranges, Tomatoes, Grapefruit	9	47+
3. Potatoes and other Vegetables and Fruits	17	89+
4. Milk, and Milk Products	16	84
5. Meat, Poultry, Fish, or Eggs	16	84
6. Bread, Flour, and Cereals	17	89
7. Butter and Fortified Margarine	12	63

Table III shows that more children drank milk for breakfast than for the other meals. Table V shows that 16% of the group did not drink any milk at home at any of the three meals. Forty-two percent of the children had a glass of milk for each of the three meals. Since each child had a half pint bottle of milk at school, 42% of the group drank one quart of milk, assuming that the glasses at home held ½ pint each, on this particular day.

From Tables III and IV it is clear that seven children ate their green or yellow vegetables at both meals. Therefore, only 37% ate green or yellow vegetables. Table IV shows that one hundred percent of the group had bread, flour or cereal. sometime during the three meals. Table VI shows that only one child had an adequate diet for the day studied; that is, just one child ate food from all seven groups. Seven

children or approximately 37% of them had food from six groups. It is evident that one child was decidedly lacking in the daily requirements. From the above evidence, it is obvious that the children studied were not getting an adequate diet.

In order to learn what these children would select when given an opportunity to make a choice, the following experiment was carried out. Arrangements were made to take the group to the college cafeteria for a noon day meal and to provide enough money so that the children were not hampered by expense.

It was necessary to plan carefully for the trip so that the children felt free in the situation and would choose the foods they wanted. The teacher paved the way for the trip in the discussion period. Such things as the following were talked over: what foods they would have to choose from; two half-portions of butter cost the same as one full portion; one-half order of meat or macaroni was designated by a sprig of parsley; and how to get a glass of water.

Large charts of the various foods to be had at the cafeteria were made by the teacher. These served for reading lessons and helped to familiarize the children with the different foods available and the prices. The children planned menus of what they would like for a noon day meal.

Many parents were contacted personally to get their reactions to the plan and without an exception they approved. Mimeographed letters were sent home to all parents for their signature of approval. There were many poor families in the group, and to those parents the teacher added a note saying that the cost of the meal for the child would be provided, if they wished. Every parent signified his willingness for the child to go and many sent more than the 30c for the lunch.

A college class of girls in nutrition planned to accompany the children to the cafeteria. They had observed in the room twice before the trip to become acquainted with the children. Each college student had charge of four children and escorted them to the cafeteria, helped them down the line, answered questions about the food but always left the choice of food to the children.

Each child had charge of his own money. The college students had extra money to take care of the children who might buy a lunch that cost more than he had money for. The most inexpensive lunch purchased cost 10c (milk, pudding, roll) and the most expensive cost 50 cents. After the lunch each college student took her group back to school for a recreational period.

TABLE VII

Food Choices at Cafeteria of 41 children

Food Groups	*No.*	*Per Cent*
1. Green and Yellow Vegetables	11	27
2. Oranges, Tomatoes, Grapefruit	6	15
3. Potatoes and other Vegetables and Fruits	25	61
4. Milk and Milk Products	41	100
5. Meat, Poultry, Fish, or Eggs	9	22
6. Bread, Flour, and Cereals	18	44
7. Butter and Fortified Margarine	9	22

In addition to the above, children selected macaroni, gravy, pie, cookies, crackers and chocolate pudding.

Table VII summarizes the food choices of the lunches eaten by the children at the cafeteria. Table VII shows that 27% ate a green or yellow vegetable which was either carrots or peas; 15% had either an orange, a tangerine, or grapefruit juice; 61% had potatoes, or potato soup, or vegetables that belong to Group Three. Every child had one-half pint of milk; of these, 18 drank plain milk while 23 had chocolate milk. Only 22% ate from Group Five, and this included one serving of spare ribs, four of eggs (counting the custards in this group), and 4 servings of gelatin salad. Forty-four percent of the children ate bread, rolls or muffins. But only 9 children had butter on their bread, and only one child took two half pats of butter. It was apparent that the children in this report did not make a wise choice of food even when they had an opportunity.

Of the nutrition objectives listed in Nutrition Education in the Elementary School published by the United States Office of Education, the following are of concern to us in this report:

1.) good habits of food selection; 2.) a favorable attitude toward all foods necessary for health and growth, especially the protective foods available in the communities; 3.) an understanding of the importance of the right kinds of food to healthy growth, resistance to fatigue, attractive appearance, and physical well-being; 4.) the ability to check one's daily food intake with a daily food guide; 5.) the ability to plan a simple meal suitable for a child; and 6.) the cooperation of parents in helping the child to apply in his daily eating what he has learned about nutrition.

The instructional program was initiated with the above objectives and the findings of the two surveys in mind.

It seemed advisable to choose for a major activity one for which the children felt a responsibility and in which they could show active interest. Using the information secured in the surveys, about the children it was evident that an activity should be chosen that would show that a choice of the entire Basic 7 foods is necessary for adequate growth.

The same college students secured for the group six male rats

from a neighboring experimental laboratory. Because of the nature of the experiment the rats had mean dispositions and were much older than is recommended for a feeding experiment, but because of the enthusiasm of the children, it was decided to try the feeding experiment in spite of the disposition and age of the rats.

The children named the rats Mr. A, Mr. B, Mr. C, Mr. D, Mr. E, and Mr. F. Mr. A, Mr. B, and Mr. C were fed on a good diet and Mr. D, Mr. E, and Mr. F on a poor diet. Each rat was in an individual cage.

The rats which received a "good," or balanced, diet were fed at least one serving of each of the Basic 7 each day. Their diet included the following: carrots, lettuce, oranges, potatoes, apples, milk, raw meat, hard-boiled eggs, nuts, bread, cereal, butter and water.

The rats on a "poor," or unbalanced, diet received the following: potatoes, bread, cereal, coke, pop and water. With the exception of the Saturday and Sunday care of the rats, the children took complete charge of caring for them. They prepared the food and fed the rats twice a day. They put clean papers and fresh water in each cage once a day and scrubbed them with hot water and soap once a week. Every night the cages were covered with a newspaper cover.

An individual record of the behavior of each rat was kept by the children. These records were in the form of booklets and were hung directly back of the respective cages. The following things were included: behavior during weighing and feeding, any unusual behavior, and weekly weight.

The feeding experiment was conducted just four weeks, with results as shown in Table VIII.

Table VIII summarizes the results of the rat feeding experiment. Mr. A, B, and C, the rats receiving a good diet, gained 45, 30½ and 60 grams respectively, while the rats on the poor diet showed the following results: Mr. D weighed the same at the end of the experiment as he did at the beginning; Mr. E lost 6½ grams; and Mr. F gained 13 grams.

TABLE VIII

Weight of Rats at Beginning and End of Feeding Experiment

Rats	*Weight at Beginning*	*Weight at End*	*Gain or Loss*
Mr. A	216 grams	261 grams	+45 grams
Mr. B	256½ grams	287 grams	+30½ grams
Mr. C	220 grams	280 grams	+60 grams
Mr. D	195 grams	195 grams	0
Mr. E	216 grams	209½ grams	− 6½ grams
Mr. F	170 grams	183 grams	+13 grams

In order help the children summarize what they had learned in feeding the two different diets to the rats, several assemblies were given. The children invited the college students, several other grades, and their parents to school. Each child told of some phase of the experiment.

Another part of the instructional program was the setting up of a play cafeteria in the schoolroom. The teacher prepared a chart holder for food models.[1] This was thumb tacked to a long bulletin board. A child was given a tray with wooden standards on it and told to choose a breakfast. As each item was taken from the cafeteria it was stood up in the wooden standards on his tray. After the breakfast was chosen, it could be placed in a small chart holder. Thus each meal chosen could be saved and it was easy to check them against the Basic 7. The children also checked their own daily consumption of food with the Basic 7 guide. This concrete material added interest and fun to discussions about food.

The children also learned many facts by playing "Riddles" from a chart which they made. A sheet of 24x36 inch oak tag was ruled into 4x6 inch rectangles. The children cut out from magazines pictures of different foods and pasted one in each rectangle. The teacher printed the name under each picture. One child was "It". This child would make some comment about a food on the chart. The other children tried to guess of what particular food "It" was thinking. The child who guessed then became "It".

Many of the readers for second and third grades have stories about the proper food, how to keep well, and basic health rules. Sometimes these were enjoyed as recreational reading during a free period and sometimes as a worktype reading lesson.

Copies of My Weekly Reader were cut up and mounted on construction paper or made into booklets. These presented many basic health facts in an attractive manner.

The plans made by the children before going to the cafeteria, provided a meaningful chart reading experience. Also, the planning of a menu from the chart entitled "College Cafeteria Menu" gave experience in reading. A Foods chart, and the Riddle game, presented reading in different ways.

The children enjoyed making a Foods Chart. On the chart they drew pictures of different foods that help to make good muscles; strong teeth and bones; and keep us from getting colds. They had to get the facts from their reading. When they found any new information they were free to add it to the chart. When the Foods Chart was finished, it was an attractive chart for future reference. The children incorporated the facts they had learned about the right kinds of food into an original play, and

[1]Food Models. National Dairy Council, 111 North Canal Street, Chicago, Illinois. 94 cardboard models. $1.00.

Foods model holder. National Dairy Council. Free.

each time it was acted out different facts and characters were added.

Many situations arose in which the children had experience in writing. The children wrote "thank you" notes to the college girls; they wrote invitations to their parents to come to the assembly; and invitations to the various grades to invite them too. In planning the menus, it was necessary for the children to write what they expected to choose.

There were many experiences in arithmetic in connection with the trip to the cafeteria and in connection with the instructional program in health. Arithmetic was made real when the children went to the cafeteria. To have 30c to pay for one's own lunch; to count it before leaving the school, checking on arriving at the cafeteria to see if none were lost enroute and, finally, to count the change, is *real* arithmetic!

The individual growth records of the rats provided experience in making graphs. First the teacher worked them out on the blackboard with the children. Then the individual growth records were made. At the end of the rat feeding experiment the composite graph was made. Almost every child in the room could interpret the graph.

The weekly weighing of the rats required many skills in arithmetic. The first of which was balancing the scale with the shot. Then adding up the gram weights on the scale besides reading the grams on the sliding scale, and finally the subtracting to find the gain or loss in weight. These experiences made arithmetic function in the lives of the children.

The foregoing account of the instructional program in the nutritional activities set up in the second and third grade shows that the entire program was integrated. One of the reasons for the success of the instructional program is that the unit of work fulfilled a felt need in the lives of the children.

In order to check the effectiveness of the instructional period, two follow-up studies were initiated. The first study was conducted at the end of the same school year, and the second was conducted one year later. The same techniques were used in the two follow-ups as were used in the previous surveys.

At the close of the school year the parents were again asked to make a list of the food eaten by their child for one entire day. This was motivated by the teacher's suggestion that the children make a border around menu cards. Many children made large menu cards at school and took them home for the parents to fill out. Fourteen children returned the menus. These children included some from superior homes as well as those from poorer ones, and children with high intelligence as well as children with quite low intelligence. The findings of the follow-ups are given in Tables IX, X, XI, and XII.

A comparison of Tables IV and X indicate a continued increase in selection of foods from the seven groups of basic foods, and other tables show a similar increase in the intake of milk at meals. In general, likewise, children were shown to be eating more regularly within a selection of foods which would provide a balanced diet, although as always there persisted the few choices of coffee, pie, and donuts.

TABLE XI

Children's Intake of Milk at Meals
(14 children for one day)

Meals	*No.*	*%*
One meal	1	.07
Two meals	5	.36
Three meals	17	.50
No milk	1	.07

TABLE XII

Children Eating from Each of the Basic Seven Groups
(14 children for one day)

Number of children eating from all 7 groups	2	14 %
Number eating from 6 groups	6	43 %
Number eating from 5 groups	4	29 %
Number eating from 4 groups	1	1 %
Number eating from 3 groups	1	1 %
Number eating from 2 groups	0	0 %
Number eating from 1 group	0	0 %

TABLE IX

Menus of Children at End of School
(14 children for one day)

Food Group	*Breakfast*		*Dinner*		*Supper*	
	No.	*%*	*No.*	*%*	*No.*	*%*
1. Green and Yellow Vegetables	0	0	6	43	5	36
2. Oranges, Tomatoes, Grapefruit	5	36	3	21	2	14
3. Potatoes and other Vegetables and Fruits	0	0	13	93	13	93
4. Milk and Milk Products	12	86	10	71	9	64
5. Meat, Poultry, Fish, or Eggs	3	21	9	64	10	71
6. Bread, Flour, and Cereals	12	86	9	64	8	57
7. Butter and Fortified Margarine	5	36	7	50	16	43

In addition, the children also reported cookies, soup, coffee, macaroni, postum, rice, donuts, cake, pudding, pie, pancakes, gravy, and tea.

TABLE X

Children Eating Foods from Seven Basic Food Groups
as Reported for 14 Children for One Day

Food Group	*No. Children*	*Percentage*
1. Green and Yellow Vegetables	9	64
2. Oranges, Tomatoes, Grapefruit	8	57
3. Potatoes and other Vegetables and Fruits	14	100
4. Milk and Milk Products	13	93
5. Meat, Poultry, Fish, and Eggs	14	100
6. Bread, Flour, and Cereals	13	93
7. Butter and Fortified Margarine	10	71

On the basis of improved selection of diets for these children, these follow-ups indicated that primary boys and girls could understand and use basic ideas of nutrition education, although it must be understood that various other factors besides their specific learning experiences may have influenced their improved diets as shown at the end of the school year.

WESTFALL . . .

(*Continued from Page* 99)

order to provide the best working relationships for the college and its student teachers?

17. How can those responsible for directing the laboratory phases of a student's professional training participate most effectively in the placement services of the college?

18. What should be the responsibility of the college in helping its students after graduation and to what extent should the staff of the laboratory school participate in a follow-up program?

19. What are the relative advantages and disadvantages of some types of interneship plan for graduates of the college?

20. What should be the responsibility of the various college departments and members of the college faculty in making effective the whole laboratory program of teacher education?

These are problem-questions which represent issues to be considered in the changing situations which develop in student-teaching. As laboratory schools, teachers' colleges, and co-operating city schools work together toward their common solution, the contributions of the campus school will be ever increased.

OEHRING . . .

(*Continued from Page* 101)

Rests were not new to us because we had seen them in *Timothy's Tunes*. A large chart of the melodic score of our patterns was made.

Susan suggested that each band player should have a sheet of the score to help him remember. From this idea the small instrumental scores developed. As the symbol for each instrument was suggested the score was written on the board. It was discovered that each instrumental pattern was played many times. The number of times each pattern was played was counted and Katherine suggested putting this number beside the pattern.

One day Jack copied the score on paper. John brought a slate and copied the score, too. The following day a special time was used for each child to copy his own band score from the blackboard. Whenever we played our band we would use the band scores.

In conclusion, the question was asked, "What values have these children received from this experience?" First of all, they have developed an understanding of musical terms from direct concrete experience. No symbol or new term was mentioned or used unless there was a felt need for it or unless the symbol was developed out of a concrete experience. Secondly, many of these children saw for the first time a melodic score. This score was one in which they could understand because they created it. They could even play it on the zylophone. They also experienced the beginning of an understanding of the instrumental score. From the symbols which they created for each instrument they observed that different instruments played at different times.

Most important of all this orchestration was a creative experience. It was an experience which was the outgrowth of many musical experiences the children had had in the home, in kindergarten, and in first grade. In creating the orchestration they not only used much information which was familiar to them but they also discovered many new facts. As a result they gained a new insight into that which they already knew along with the satisfaction of feeling that they had discovered something new and different.

PERKINS . . .

(*Continued from Page* 103)

leaders for these squads. They will more readily follow a leader of their own choosing. Also, the voting improves their behavior in striving to become leaders, as well as good followers. A well planned squad program with leaders will be democratic as well as an effective device for improving skills.

Testing is an open field. Many such simple tests can be used. They will vary according to locality and equipment. Which test is used is not as important as the fact that one is used and something done about it. A well-rounded program of tests should be given, since a small child's abilities in one skill such as jumping may be quite high because of past experience, but the skill of catching be quite low for the same reason. Testing is only a part of the physical education program but an important part. The children must develop all their basic skills well, to practice the power of concentration, and to learn to work together, if a more healthy generation is to be built which will be well-rounded in all respects. Any activity which will help to attain that goal should be included as a part of the program.

HUNSUCKER . . .

(*Continued from Page* 108)

cal Literature
"The Riflemen of the Ohio" Altscheler
"Illinois in the Fifties", Johnson
"Frontier Law", McConnell
"Rocky Ford", Catherwood
"The Romance of the Reaper", Casson
"Great Inventors and Their Inventions", Bachman

D. How the United States Has

Become the Greatest Manufacturing Nation in the World
1. Text pp. 389-429
2. Time limit—four weeks
3. Topics to be discussed—
   a. Our Vast Store of Raw Supplies
   b. The Industrial Revolution
   c. Our Great Manufacturing Centers
   d. Capital and Labor
   e. Industrial Conditions Today
4. Some Illustrative Historical Literature
   Compton's Encyclopedia
   "Some Inventions That Revolutionized Life and Industry in America", I-115-117
   "The Flashing Wires That Gird the Earth", T-30-32
   The World Book
   "Development of Manufacturing Industries", 7377, 7380, 8339
   "Discoveries and Inventions", 8390, 8352, 8355
   "Four American Inventors", Perry

E. How the United States Has Built Up the World's Greatest Transportation and Communication System
1. Text pp. 430-465
2. Time limit—four weeks
3. Topics to be discussed—
   a. Early Means of Transportation and Communication
   a. Wagon Roads
   b. Waterways
   d. Railroads
   e. Means of Transportation and Communication Today
   f. Our Transportation System Today
   g. Our Communication System Today
4. Some Illustrative Historical Literature
   Compton's Encyclopedia
   "Transportation in Its Various Phases up to 1860", T-122-125
   The World Book
   "Transportation and Commerce", 7380-7385, 8474-8476
   The Book of Knowledge
   Vol. 13: 4630-4633, 4725-4730

COBURN . . .

(*Continued from Page* 111)

ly consist of a single lesson in nutrition. Reading skill was aided by use of the script. Vocabularies were increased, and knowledge of radio as a method of communication was made clearer. Of course the project consumed quite a lot of time; but time is of small consequence when compared with results. The important feature is that teaching by methods such as this is not an impossibility. The group's visit to the bakery and the radio studio is not necessarily a barrier. Outsiders, parents and friends of the school can often be brought in to explain features difficult to study by other means. Even the smallest rural school can plan such a project and gain in interest and education.

There is one thing to bear in mind: the successful teacher depends on proper motivation to simplify her task. She is much too busy to intimidate. She knows that the report card, as a means of motivation, is as outmoded as Aristotle's "pain".

. . . Around The Reading Table . . .

(*Unsigned reviews are by the editor.*)

Land. By Liam O'Flaherty. New York: Random House, 1946. Pp. 356 $2.50.

Land is a novel of strange depths and shallows. Most of it is of unparalleled beauty in style; it is rich in imagery, vigorour in metaphorical illusion; well chosen and colorful in vocabulary. Most of it follows a closely-integrated, well knit story of the Irish uprisings against the tenant farming and absentee-owner system. But occasionally within a stirring section devoted to political struggle and heightened in interest, there is a sudden and unexplanable break, while a short chapter of two or three pages is interjected with no seeming close relation to previous or later continuity.

The story follows the chroncling of Michael O'Dwyer, the Fenian leader, in a small Irish village, whose end in life is to lead the revolt against the landowners and other advocates of class. A romance with the niece of an owner, whose father deserts his aristocracy to accept the belated leadership of the O'Dwyer clan, is fraught with emotional relations within family, most of which are penetratingly and clearly defined and depicted.

There are sections of *Land* where the realism is perhaps unnecessarily brutal in its portrayal, but, in general, there is a feeling of power behind O'Flaherty's writing which makes the story well worth the sometimes strained tenacity of the reader.

The Four Graces. By D. E. Stevenson. New York: Rinehart and Co., 1946, Pp. 250. $2.50.

The four daughters of the Reverend Mr. Grace give the title to a slender volume of wit and sonorous humor. The quiet of life at the personage flows gently on through the war years, with only an occasional sentence of chance conversation to let the reader know the author knew the world was not the one of peace which Mr. Grace believed it to be.

If you like a light and easily read book of exquisite character study, you will enjoy every moment with the "Four Graces".

. . . Education in the News . . .

The National Self-Government Committee, Inc., with offices at 80 Broadway, New York 5, N.Y., has recently distributed a helpful leaflet, "Preparation for Student Government Leadership", authored by Edgar G. Johnston, of the School of Education, University of Michigan. Mr. Johnston has pointed out the need for effective sponsor training if true student leadership is to be effected. He has set up five characteristics of desirable preparation: (1) development of a sound philosophy of education grounded in sympathy for democratic processes and institutions; (2) thorough acquaintance with the development of student participation; (3) practical understanding of adolescent boys and girls; (4) experience in working with young people in voluntary activities; and (5) progressive appraisal of those qualities which make for success in work with young people. His concluding statement has a general application to all teaching: "The successful sponsor is one who studies his local situation and knows the boys and girls with whom he works."

* * * *

For those interested in the problems of FM broadcasting, there is available "F-M: The Key to Future Radio Allocations", distributed by CBS to explain some of the bases for a sound determination of policy. The pamphlet points out that FM will bring static-free full fidelity broadcasting, improved day and night coverage, and more program choice for listeners. However, with a minimal 10% population, in rural areas over the country, an overall future plan for national listening should necessarily include strategically located AM stations with less than 1,000 kilowatt power, but with extensive ground-wave propagation.

A recent issue of "The Public and Education", a bulletin of the National Education Association, reports an address by Eric A. Johnston, President of the United States Chamber of Commerce, to the American Association of School Administrators at their spring meeting. He pointed out the relationship of a high educational level to a high standard of living in a country, and to the need for a real public relations program between educators and the public. "Just as business needs more customers, educators need more enthusiasts."

* * * *

The 1946 Radio Award of the National Council of Teachers of English was given to the Columbia Workshop presentation of "Richard III", brodcast over CBS on June 2, and starring Lawrence Olivier. Presentation of the award was made November 30 at the Council's annual luncheon at Atlantic City. The citation reads: "Because it presented a magnificent cast in the presentation of a great classic, because it made modern audiences keenly aware of the supreme skill of Shakespeare as a dramatist, and because it utilized radio techniques effectively in the interpretation of literature, the National Council of Teachers of English takes great pleasure in making this first award in the realm of Reading and Writing to CBS and the Lawrence Olivier production of 'Richard III'."

The NCTE Radio award is made to that program which has done most to promote a greater appreciation for and understanding of our literary heritage, and to awaken greater love of beautiful writing and beautiful speech. In 1945 the award was made to Norman Cowin for the broadcast, "On a Note of Triumph", for general excellence.

The U. S. Office of Education releases figures to show that enrollments in higher educational institutions have practically doubled in the past year. Further, its analysis reveals that approximately one-half of the present student total are veterans. It is to be expected, and the report (Statistical Circular: SRS-21.3-116) shows the expectancy to be reality, that the increase is overwhelmingly male, with 294 per cent as many new men students as in the war years, as compared with 17 per cent as many new women students.

The largest numbers of new students are enrolled also in the largest institutions. However, the figures, when broken down, show a significant aggregate of new students in the junior colleges, and it is a conclusion of the report that much of the absorption of beginning students has been accomplished by the junior college.

* * * *

An interesting educational bulletin recently off the press at Tegucigalpa, Honduras, "Escuela Agricola Panamericana", tells the story of the first graduating class of this unusual school. The School was founded in 1941 by the United Fruit Company to bring technical training to young men of Latin America. It was officially dedicated on Columbus Day, 1944. A simple foreword by former Secretary of Commerce Henry A. Wallace states the emphasis of the School to be a three-way pathway to fruitful knowledge: "work with the hands, work with the head, and daily enjoyment of sufficient recreation to maintain a zestful interest in life". It is a first in the specific training of farmers in "Middle America". The bulletin is distributed by the Middle America Information Bureau, Box 93, Station Y, New York 21, N. Y.

A recent publication of the National Education Association, "Teaching about Light and Sight", is of interest to teachers as a source of information as well for themselves as for their pupils. It treats in non-technical, simple language of the visual process, the physical facilities necessary for adequacy of vision, and simple symptoms of visual defect. Information is furnished concerning periodicals published in the field of illumination and sight conservation, and agencies available for aid to the visually handicapped. It is an excellent pamphlet for supplementary use in hygiene, physics, and sight conservation classes on the secondary level, and as a handy reference booklet for the college reading table.

* * * *

The North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges has recently released its study, "Improving Intergroup Relations in School and Community Life", prepared by its Sub-Committee on In-Service Education of Teachers. The report has been prepared to present what is already being done by outstanding schools and communities to meet and solve the problems of interracial and intercultural education, and to offer suggestions for formal and informal approaches to increased understandings. In co-operation with the College with the College Study in Intergroup Relations of the Council on Co-operation in Teacher Education of the American Council on Education, the report gives brief, significant practical analysis of ethnic problem-situations, and suggestions as to what the general citizen, and especially the teacher, can do to promote improved relationships. Excellent bibliographies are also included which provide further study and teaching source materials.

* * * *

A new series of discussion slidefilms, "Basic Bird Studies," is available from the Jam Handy Organization, 2821 E. Grand Blvd., Detroit. Designed as a supplement to field trips and reading in the field, it includes such subjects as structure and adaptations of birds, migration, birds' nests, how birds serve man, and how to help the birds.

* * * *

Through funds derived from a $5,000 gift to the Indiana University Foundation from a Louisville industrialist, the School of Business of that university plans a detailed study of methods whereby men in industry may take advantage of educational opportunities in college programs. Included in the program will be a series of meetings with industrial leaders in Indiana to discuss three major considerations: (1) what part of a college program would industrial leaders make use of if they personally had the opportunity to return to college? (2) what would these leaders desire for their employees? and (3) what non-technical work should colleges offer employees?

As a result of this survey it is expected that material will be prepared so that a visual explanation can be offered to industry showing the warp in which education and business can co-ordinate their services.

* * * *

A college program in the American system is now duplicated in Mexico City, Mexico with opportunities to study Hispanic American culture. Mexico City College is an outgrowth of the American School Foundation which has been approved under the GI bill. The College has already graduated its first two-year class, and has now announced its first four-year curriculum, and has been approved by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Originally planned to meet the needs of American families living in Mexico who wanted their children to have an "American College" education, it is now also open to Mexicans who otherwise would cross the Rio Grande to sample American Education at the collegiate level.

Its curriculum emphasizes the fine arts, the Romance languages, and business administration. The college announces its course work is accredited by the University of Illinois, Stanford University and the California Institute of Technology. Ohio State University, operating under the quarter system, will accept a winter's quarter of study in Mexico if work of acceptable quality is completed.

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News comes from the U. S. Office of Education that John Dale Russell has been named Director of the Division of Higher Education. Dr. Russell is former professor of education at the University of Chicago. He assumed his new office on July 1. Indianians will recognize him as a native Hoosier of Bloomington, and an alumnus of Indiana University, from which he received his baccaulareate, master's, and doctor's degrees. In the early twenties, he was assistant to the dean of the School of Education at Indiana, and then Director of Research and Statistics in the Indiana Department of Education. Some years later he became Assistant Director of the Bureau of School Service at the University of Kentucky. Since 1931 he has been at the University of Chicago.

In 1945, Dr. Russell was appointed Dean and Academic Adviser of the Biarritz American University in France, where he was responsible for the selection of faculty members for Army University centers in the European theatre, and for supervising the academic program at Biarritz. He returned to the University of Chicago this year.

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The May issue of *The Journal of Higher Education* includes a vital report on "The Conference on World Government", held at Rollins College, at Winter Park, Florida, from March 11-16, 1946. The conference included twenty representatives from business, labor, science, religion, and education.